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Editor's Note: Indiana State Teachers College was host for the annual Teacher Education Conference of the State of Indiana, November 18 and 19, 1938. This conference is held each year under the auspices of the Division of Teacher Training and Licensing of the State Department of Education.

After the adjournment of the conference,

several of those in attendance expressed the opinion that it would be helpful to publish the proceedings of the conference. It was not possible, then, to obtain all of the papers given during the two days. Most of them have since been made available. We are glad to have the privilege of publishing them.—J. E. G.

Integration in Teacher-Education

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In considering the integration of the college and laboratory schools, it is advisable to shift the emphasis somewhat and center attention upon the nature of the professional development of the student being trained. In reality that is what integrating two schools should mean—integrating the experiences of the students being educated by them. Also, it more nearly represents the present trend in college work in many centers.

Not quite a decade ago I reported a study on the current practices of our teacher-educating colleges in coordinating the work of the college and the training school. While the word "coordination" was still in vogue at that time, integration and gradation of the required work were the real

objectives. During the last two years I have completed a further study of this problem of integration with particular reference to the student development being realized. The results were challenging and, I think, encouraging.

In this second study, I tried to find out the extent to which the colleges and universities doing teacher-education work were making proper provision for the well-balanced and integrative development of the student. That is, the extent to which they determined the status and stage of development of the student at appropriate points in his curricular progress as a basis for his further classification.

These two studies offer an interesting contrast. In the earlier study, much was

being said and done relative to the content of the courses required in the teacher-educating curriculum. There seemed to be the conviction that if the proper content could be determined, and if a graduated program of study could be developed that would enable the student to become acquainted with and understand such content during his training period, student development could be taken for granted. As a result of this viewpoint, there were numerous and varied provisions made for outlining and organizing courses to cover the content that should be taught in the college; in the training school, the designated experiences were planned and provided in the student teaching program. If the student were put through these teaching activities for a term or two, his professional development and growth were rated as completed, and suitable grades and credit were reported for the work.

These practices in teacher-education were patterned after the requirements for graduation and degree work in colleges throughout the country. They attempted to provide opportunities for the students to do this required work, to make acceptable and high grades, and to complete the required credit hours in a four-year program of study and work. And unfortunately the students centered their attention too exclusively upon achieving *just* such ends in many cases.

In the second study, note the difference. Here the goal is shifted to results in student growth and development in desired respects—those indicated by the student's needs to meet the specifications of a qualified teacher. It is no longer the credit hours but rather the student's professional growth that indicates the worth of the teacher-education program or curriculum. A course is valuable only to the extent to which it contributes its portion of student development in professional ability and competency. The chief objective in required college work now is the development that the student gets out of any particular course or series of courses. In some of our teacher-educating institutions today it is impossible to graduate upon the completion of the total number of hours credit, with the required scholarship standing, unless the student can demonstrate his ability

to perform in the designated fields he has studied.

This new emphasis on student growth is creating additional demands of teachers and schools. This evaluation of college courses and of student teaching in terms of student growth requires that means of measurement must be developed for measuring this growth before the courses or the teaching can be proved effective. In college work this means that each course will be redirected and reorganized to effect the student development desired. Then tests and other appraisal tools will be devised for determining whether these results have been secured. Under such circumstances a teacher in offering a course will be definitely facing the following task as a minimum: to teach the course in such a way that the desired student growth will be realized. He will be guided in this by these means of evaluation based on the particular abilities that should be developed in the course.

Similar changes are taking place in the training school. The chief responsibility of the training teacher is being centered upon ways and means of bringing about the desired student growth in ability to teach and of measuring the results secured. Under this program the institution will no longer be satisfied with a supervising teacher's grade or report on the student. Rather, it will be primarily interested in evidences that she may present to show that certain specific growth has taken place.

As a result of these developments in the college and in the training school, emphasis in integration of college and training school work has changed noticeably. On the one hand, the college is seeking to develop certain definite, needed abilities in the student before approving him for student teaching. These demands made of the college are distributed among the required courses offered as prerequisites to teaching. The laboratory schools, on the other hand, are concerned with three important problems: (1) determining the existing status of the student teacher when he reports for teaching; (2) planning experiences in teaching for each student that will bring about the development that he needs in essential respects (this will enable the

training supervisor to plan the remedial teaching needed in each case); (3) devising ways and means of evaluating the student's development in designated respects at different times during his teaching so that the school may know when the minimum or better standards of teaching have been reached by the student. Finally, it will be necessary to determine the student's professional status or stage of development that has been stressed in the student-teaching program.

This sounds like an impossibility. However, some of our schools are not considering it a Utopian plan. Definite progress has been made in many sections of the country and the outlook is most promising. Investigations that I carried on last year presented a number of varied attacks on the problem of student professional growth. In assigning student teachers to work in the laboratory schools, twenty-one different means and procedures were used to determine fitness and specific needs to be met. Twenty-seven different devices for evaluating the student's progress during his teaching were reported. At the close of student teaching there were more than forty ways and means reported in trying to summarize the professional status of the student at that time.

In this study it was apparent that the schools were not considering the professional growth of the student only during the period of professional training. It was not confined to student teaching any more than to the college work. In fact, it was a problem of evaluation dating from the time the student made application to enter the institution. During the first two years, in practically all the schools cooperating in this study, emphasis was placed upon the personality development and the mastery of academic work for which the students classified. A rather careful analysis of the student's strong and weak points in important respects was made during the first few months of the freshman year, and the student was notified of his deficiencies and was advised that his admission to the professional work at the beginning of the junior year would depend on his having improved in these respects sufficiently to

meet the minimum standards of the college.

In general, this analysis during the first year covered the following required tests and examinations: intelligence, personality, teaching aptitudes, English usage, reading ability, and the minimum requirements in arithmetic, general science, and social science. Under the heading of personality, three points received particular emphasis, namely, physical fitness and mental health, voice and oral expression, and social adjustment. In some of the schools, qualifying examinations over all the content considered basic in preparation for college were given for diagnostic purposes to aid in planning a two-year program of work for the student.

In these schools admission to the professional work at the beginning of the junior year was a formal procedure in which the student made application for entrance to the professional education of teachers. This application was filed with the committee on entrance and the student's record for the first two years was carefully checked and evaluated in connection with entrance requirements. The student was then notified by the committee on entrance whether he was fully admitted to the professional work, admitted on condition, or refused admission.

A few of the schools went beyond this. Certain qualifying examinations were required at the close of the sophomore year. In some institutions, also, the students were given definite guidance in preparing for these examinations while taking the courses of the first and second years.

You will note that this whole program was centered on the student's growth in ability to perform and to meet conditions required in typical and superior teaching situations. Having received full credit and good grades in these subjects was not sufficient. The student was required at the close of the first two years to demonstrate his ability in the field of his special study through these examinations.

We will get a better understanding of these requirements in the professional education of teachers if we apply the improved procedures now practiced in part at different schools as a composite program for some one institution. This I

shall now do, to show the integration and continuity achieved.

A student in seeking to enter the teachers college of this composite program would provide a scholarship average of *C* or better from his high school record. He would file with the college reports from informed persons concerning his character, study habits, personal and social development, special capacities and interests, and possible aptitude for teaching. In addition to this, he would give, either oral or written, a statement regarding his purposes and plans for the future and an explanation of how his college work would further such ambitions.

If these records and his high school credits were satisfactory, the student would be provisionally admitted to the college. Soon after entrance, he would be evaluated in the following respects through examinations and ratings:

- a. General psychological examination
- b. Aptitude test
- c. Achievement tests in the fundamental knowledges and skills needed for college
- d. Health and physical fitness examinations
- e. Voice and oral expression diagnosis
- f. Personality analysis and evaluation by means of tests and interviews

The student would be informed of his achievement in these various tests and examinations and commended for his superior work. Wherever the deficiencies were serious, he would be referred to some faculty member or some other professional man or woman approved by the college for consultation, guidance, and help in making adjustments. He would be definitely advised of any specific improvements he would have to make to become eligible for admission to the professional teacher-education work at the end of his sophomore year.

Upon entrance to the college the student would be assigned to an adviser, whose responsibilities would be to study, to gain the confidence of, and to guide the student in his various relationships and obligations in the college. This adviser would also help the student to discover his needs and possibilities and to make the necessary ad-

justments. In doing this the adviser would be expected to call upon any agency of the college for special assistance, but the adviser would be held responsible for results. At the close of the year this adviser would report fully on the student's achievements and his existing status in important respects, making recommendations for the student's further development. This annual report would be passed on to the student's next adviser with a complete file of his cumulative record to date. This would, of course, include the tests and ratings made during the first of the year.

Likewise, during the last term of his sophomore year evaluation reports would be made on the student. These might be based on comprehensive examinations on major and minor work and in special fields of importance, such as English, social studies, science, and art—depending upon the nature of the work the student had taken in college. These evaluation reports would be made by the department concerned in each case. The preferred report, however, would be one wherein the instructors who had taught the student would file sufficient evidence to present a reasonably reliable report on his ability to achieve in the particular field.

Also during this last term of the sophomore year the student would make formal application for admission to the professional teacher-education work. In addition to filling out the blank the student would file evidence, signed by faculty representatives responsible for such reporting, that he had made up any deficiencies reported to him for correction.

This application in connection with his college record to date would be reviewed and acted upon in one of three ways: approved, rejected, or conditioned. If the student were rejected and if he wished to continue in school, he would be given positive assistance in redirecting his college program.

Having successfully passed these hurdles, the student would enter upon his professional work for teaching. At particular stages of this work in certain fields he would be given certain qualifying examinations to determine his fitness to continue with more advanced work of the profes-

sional school. Most of this evaluation would be done just before beginning student teaching. By this time he would have completed certain courses and work required as prerequisites to student teaching. These tests would cover the two main types of courses he had taken: (1) Those dealing with the subject matter of the fields he expects to teach and with its adaptation for teaching purposes. In the latter case he would be given an opportunity to show how one or more units of work and instructional materials should be adapted to the level of the pupils being instructed. (2) In the other type or field, the qualifying examination would be on the professional work. These examinations would call for performance in practical teaching situations and would relate to the following: studying and directing pupil development, planning for teaching, analyzing and evaluating teaching, adapting appropriate teaching procedures and materials to specific teaching needs, handling management and routine matters, and safeguarding the physical and mental health of the pupils.

Upon the completion of this examination work, the student would be required to take an applicational course wherein he would be given opportunity and guidance for observation, participation, and practical experience in teaching in the laboratory school. There he would become acquainted with children, diagnose their needs, plan remedial instruction, and participate in carrying out the remedial work. In doing this he would further demonstrate his preparation and readiness to begin regular student teaching. The reports made by the teachers of this applicational course would indicate wherein the student was fully qualified for teaching and would call attention to any specific weaknesses.

The student would now report to a supervising teacher of the laboratory school for student teaching, and the supervisor, being familiar with these reports and examination results, would be able to continue intelligent direction of the student's professional growth. She would know his strong and weak points and be able to begin working with him where he is relative to the various aspects of teaching. At this point the supervisor would outline a def-

inite program for his improvement during the term. She would talk this plan over with the student and, in cooperation with him, would revise the program to their mutual satisfaction.

By this time the student would have developed a professional attitude with reference to his education for teaching. He would be aware of the standards he should achieve in terms of the development he would have to make. He would also fully understand the various elements of the remedial work necessary to attain these ends. The student would be anxious for objective evidence of his growth along the lines attempted. To meet this need of the student, his supervisor in the laboratory school would accumulate evidence that represented the quality of his achievement. This would be done for the major activities of teaching. For example, during the early part of his teaching, his unit plans and lesson plans for teaching would be filed as evidence of his achievement at that time. Some weeks later his unit and lesson plans would be compared with these first efforts at planning and his progress or lack of progress pointed out. Similar checks would be made with reference to case-study reports on children, case-problem reports on teaching difficulties, reports on observations of the supervisor's teaching and of his own teaching, records of the supervisor's criticisms, suggestions, and final estimate of various aspects of his teaching. These records of the training supervisor would be confined almost exclusively to evidences from his teaching that characterize strong or weak work. At the close of the teaching period the training supervisor would submit a report on his progress and it, too, would be composed chiefly of evidence of good and poor work, thus presenting a reliable picture of his professional status at this stage of his teaching.

This final report of the training supervisor would be passed on to the supervising teacher who would direct his teaching for the next term. By studying the evidence which shows the progress the student has made during his first term of teaching and which also indicates his chief need for further development, this training supervisor would be in a position to

adapt the student teaching to meet the student's particular needs.

In this program of teacher-education, graduation or completion would depend upon whether the student had attained the minimum requirements in the teaching activities specified. If, at the end of this second term, the student had not attained these minimum standards, he would continue his teaching and development until such growth had been achieved.

Part of the determination of the student's extent of professional growth at the end of student teaching would be determined by an examination showing his practical application of the principles and procedures that underly the practices he has been carrying on in the laboratory school.

In this program, also, the close of student teaching merely marks the particular stage of development in the student's professional training. All of the work in college and its evaluation in student growth has been done with the expectation that he will continue such growth on leaving college. To make this possible three further reports would be made regarding the student. One would be the report filed by the director of the laboratory school—a composite report based upon those of the training supervisors who have worked with the student and such college instructors as have participated in his student teaching activities. Here primary concern would be with the student's development in teaching ability and a summary of the particular development that is most needed for further sound professional growth. This report would be filed with the appointment bureau.

In addition, the appointment bureau would be responsible for collecting other reports regarding the student's development and existing professional status from college instructors and others who have had opportunity to study his general capacity, scholastic achievement, specialized abilities, social development, and important personality factors.

The third and final report would be made to the superintendent of schools where the student would start his interne-teaching after graduation. A copy of this report would be given the student, and he would

understand that its purpose was to guide the principal and supervisors who will have immediate contact with him in directing his further professional development. Those supervising the student in the field at the close of the first month or six weeks and at the end of the year would report critically but constructively on the progress of the student in his work. Particularly would they report any deficiencies or difficulties that may critically affect his work at any time during the early part of his teaching.

The student would also report upon his work in this school sometime during his second month of teaching, giving a brief summary of how he thought he was getting along; and he would be urged to write at any time when he felt the institution might be of service to him in his work.

At any time when these reports suggested that the student was facing a serious crisis in his work, the visiting supervising-counselor of the college would be sent to the school system to study the situation at first hand and to assist the student in any way he could in solving his problems.

This sounds like a monumental piece of work in dealing with the professional training of one teacher, and it seems that there would not be time for the college teachers or the laboratory supervisors to make these analyses and reports. However, such work is being done in teachers colleges in this country at this time, and the teachers and others responsible for carrying on the program report that they much prefer it to the traditional type of teacher education. They have found that it is possible to develop scales and forms for performance in many of the major teacher activities, and that much of this recording is a matter of evaluation in terms of these scales and forms. The illustrations in these reports vary with the individual teachers, but the outstanding characteristics and the degree of quality and efficiency are the same for the different steps in the scales. As the work proceeds, it is found that teachers develop skill in, and ways and means for, determining the development of the student in the respects being sought in very much the same way that they have developed ability to determine the student's

rank or grade in doing work in the traditional manner.

This study is not inclusive of current practices. Much more needs to be done, but it suggests that a number of teacher-educating institutions are attempting to integrate the professional development of the student by providing a well-organized program of experiences ever leading from

one stage of development to another on a diagnostic-remedial plan of instruction. They realize that this work is largely experimental, but they are not hesitating to attack this fundamental problem of evaluating the intangibles in teacher-education. That fact promises much for the future. It is a courageous step forward.

Remarks in the Discussion of Integration

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Society expects much from the public schools. The greatest contribution that the schools can make is well-integrated personalities. Too frequently in the past those who have left the halls of learning left with a knowledge of facts, but not with a knowledge of those things that are essential to well-balanced personalities.

Too often teachers themselves are not very well integrated. A few years ago a lady of approximately sixty-five years of age, who for several years was a public school teacher, came to my office for advice on how to exterminate a most horrible fiend. This fiend was a man who had been a neighbor and who, she claimed, had attempted to secure her property for a nominal sum. Upon failure to do so, he began disturbing the family through three avenues, namely, mental telepathy, animal magnetism, and hypnotism. At one time she went to Canada in order to evade him temporarily, but he followed her there through mental telepathy. Upon another occasion she awoke in the middle of the night and was annoyed by his presence in the room. The fiend managed to do this

through hypnotism. Still upon another occasion the fiend made his entrance into her classroom. The class was studying grammar; a number of the children were at the board writing sentences. One little girl who was perhaps the best student in the group was observed to be staring into space instead of attending to her work. The teacher immediately attributed the experience to the fiend. The annoyance continued throughout the class period and as a result the time was wasted. Many other similar disturbances and experiences were reported. The ones given, however, are sufficient for purposes of illustration.

In teacher-educating institutions one of our first obligations is that of selecting for the teaching profession young people whose personalities are well-balanced and thoroughly integrated. This, however, too frequently in the past, has been left undone. It is hoped that this conference will result in a greater attempt at selecting young people for teacher-education who are well-integrated or who can easily be developed during the process of teacher education.

Remarks in the Discussion of Integration

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I think I can best contribute to our mutual understanding of what integration is and what it means for education by sharing with you one or two of my present ideas about it. First, let me say that I do not feel that having fifth grade children, for instance, study during the greater part of the year mediaeval history, art, and music constitutes for them an integrative experience. Such is a unit of correlated subject matter. It may be an integrative experience for the teacher, but most likely not for the ten-year-old.

An integrative experience is one that tends to reconstruct one's life around constantly larger and more unifying purposes. Likely an integrative experience for the fifth grade child is made up of a purpose that is less comprehensive than the unit which I have mentioned. The purpose must be one that the child is psychologically capable of undertaking and finishing—one preferably that he suggests, but it can be

one that the teacher suggests. Such an experience cannot be held within the bounds of any existing body of subject matter. The more careful the adult scholar has been in organizing his subject matter, the less likely is an integrative experience for a young child to be held solely within its limits.

The second thing I would like to propose for our consideration is that integration is not the best word with which to express what the individual as a whole is. The integrative action is but a part of the process of life, although a necessary one. If a single word is to be used to describe what the living process is, it would probably be the word *growth*. Growing, to my mind, consists of an ever-widening number of disintegrative and integrative experiences, which are in succession being organized around and concerned with larger and larger values.

Interpreting the Public Schools

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We are an idealistic people—we Americans. To no ideal do we cling more stubbornly than to Democracy. But somehow we have fallen into ways of thinking of and speaking of democracy as if it exists only in politics, in our form of government. This in spite of the fact that the greatest story ever told about democracy is not in American government but in American education. I have not the time today to tell all of that thrilling story. Perhaps no one

can tell all of it, for it was and is a tale made real on a thousand prairies, in a thousand villages, in big, booming cities, and in isolated mountain valleys. History may never gather all of the priceless fragments of the whole.

It is interwoven with our national life; it is a part of the heroic story of our pioneers, our frontiers, our "brave, new world." In the years after the Revolution our ancestors crossed the eastern mountains

and followed the rivers toward the West. Down the Genessee, down the Allegheny, down the Wabash, down the wide Ohio they made their way and wherever they found Nature generous or when they grew tired of traveling they settled and formed hamlets. One of their first community ventures was to build a schoolhouse and find a schoolmaster to instruct the children. Over and over the story was repeated. And always the ideal and the reality was a school supported by all of the people for all of the children of the people.

Another generation pushed on down the wide Ohio, down the Cumberland, down the Tennessee. Still others found their way along the shores of the Great Lakes and trundled their carts and crude wagons northward into the forests of Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin. They settled in little hamlets and built public schools—often when they could support the school and the schoolmaster only by great sacrifice. Northward across the plains and westward on the trail of gold to Colorado and California—westward to Oregon and the Pacific. Wherever the pioneers went they carried with them in their minds and hearts a free public school. And everywhere the little schools they started grew with their villages and with their prosperity.

Buildings were outgrown, more teachers were hired, more children were sent to school. When the land was fruitful and business was good, school buildings were erected that became truly the social and educational centers of the communities. And communities were proud of them. Teachers lived close to the people and the schools were so simple that everyone understood.

The years passed and the schools grew. Westward and northward empire no longer took its course, but the story runs on. The school grew and the high school came. Enrollments doubled. In another ten years they doubled again . . . and once again in the next ten years. The high school had swept westward with the vanishing frontier. It, too, was free . . . a school for all of the children of all the people paid for by all the people through public taxation.

Life became more complex. Old timers found themselves sentimentalizing about the wild, free days of their youth and the

Old West. Daily living—work and play—became more complicated . . . and so did the schools.

Year after year saw new courses added (nature study, science, domestic science, manual training, typewriting, music). Year after year saw new services and new methods. The curriculum was broadening to meet the needs of the new world. New methods spread across the country, and new activities kept the children busy all day long. The public school had grown more expensive but the public grinned. "It's a good thing, Mary, that our children can have these privileges" . . . and they paid the bill.

Superintendents, principals, teachers rode along on a crest of enthusiasm. Their worlds were buzzing with ideas. They wanted to apply them—and they did. Some of the ideas were expensive. Not all of them were sound . . . They wrote in their new pedagogical language about their experiments and activities and sent their articles to educational journals so that their colleagues in a thousand cities could read and improve other schools. But they *didn't* TELL THE PEOPLE UP AND DOWN THE STREETS OF THEIR OWN TOWNS all about what they were doing.

Here creeps in the first intimation of distress. Parents began to wonder about this prodigy they had reared in their midst. They didn't complain, understand; they only wondered what was going on in the big brick building. They thought possibly Mary might try to get home a little sooner after school, and they hoped that next year maybe the school taxes might not go up again. Here and there a querulous, childless grouch was frowned down for daring to suggest that maybe the school was spending too much for "fads and frills." But hardly anyone thought it seriously worth the effort to tell the people how this new education was all of a piece and not fads and frills.

Then the depression came. What happened to the schools with the coming of the depression is still happening. Conditions in general are little changed from what they were in 1933.

In the first place it must be realized that children continue to be born and to

enter school. Population increases. Depressions, big and little, do not stay the march of the children upward toward elementary- and high-school age. For example, the high-school enrollment in 1926 was 3,757,466; in 1933 it was 5,116,000. By any logical reasoning expenditures should have increased and teaching forces should have expanded. Such was not the case.

All schools were hit, but small schools, for the lack of capable spokesmen, were hardest hit. By the opening of the school term in 1933, educational statisticians were able to estimate that twenty-five per cent of the nation's children would attend school where the length of term would be less than half of what it should be.

School building construction was largely suspended, resulting in the attendance of two-hundred and fifty thousand children on a part-time basis. Scores of thousands of others were crowded into temporary shacks. Approximately four thousand badly needed rural school buildings were not constructed. Essential repairs to buildings were neglected. Leaking roofs, cracked plaster, broken stairs, worn-out boilers, and faulty ventilation systems were allowed to jeopardize the health of the children and to quadruple eventual repair and replacement costs.

Teachers' salaries were reduced in eighty to ninety per cent of city schools and in almost all rural schools. In some of the Great Plains states teachers worked, and still do, for as little as seven dollars a week. Parrish estimates the number who worked at ten dollars or less per week for a school term of five and six months as more than one hundred thousand. In some places jobs were given to the lowest bidder among teachers desperate for employment of any kind. In many places teachers' salaries were not paid, even when other city employees were paid. The Chicago situation attracted nation-wide attention, but the situation was more acute in many less strategically located cities and villages, particularly of the Middle West and South. In Alabama it was desperate. Teaching staffs were reduced beyond all reason, and underpaid, debt-harassed teachers strove hopelessly to maintain morale among their ranks and to teach with some effectiveness

in rooms overcrowded every period of the school day.

Out of the unhappy years has come a deepening conviction. School men and women must tell the story of the schools; they have a moral responsibility to interpret their school, their work, their plans to the community. The explanation is not easy. A complicated school requires time and patience and understanding to interpret. We school administrators, in particular, have come to recognize that we must prepare ourselves and our teachers for this great and new responsibility. Our work is made more difficult by the forces at work influencing public opinion in the modern world. We must face those forces and analyze them.

All of us consciously or unconsciously are propagandists inasmuch as we act to influence the thought and acts of others. Because we are aware that opinions are being formed every day and that in every conflict there must be opposing opinion, we acknowledge our role as shapers of opinion. In the interests of the common good, we must combat opinions that misrepresent the school or that oppose it as a public institution. These opinions are the result of training and associations in the home, school, or church, on playgrounds, in business, at the theatre, and on the street. They are fostered by general environment and they change as conditions of living change.

If we can gauge the tides of opinion and see the forces behind those tides, we have made an excellent start. If we cannot, we will be shooting in the dark: we will be as the battleship in the Conrad tale—firing stupidly at a continent. Almost our only satisfaction will be the sound and fury of our activity. We have urgent need to be realists, to recognize that we are dealing with mass judgment, and to shape our actions accordingly. Few people whom we would seek to reach with our explanation are as literate or as critical as we are. Few can be expected to respond to the appeals that are effective with us. Politicians and commercial propagandists understand the shaping of opinion better than we do. While I do not for a moment counsel the use of some of their methods or their misrep-

resentations, I am certain that we must study mass thought and mass opinion as faithfully as they do. We must be familiar, for instance, with the common devices used in shaping public opinion.

Familiar to professional propagandists are these six devices:

1. *Name calling* is attaching a name to something and by constant repetition of that name getting the public to accept it without weighing the evidence. Ordinarily used to discredit policies, practices, people, or institutions, it can be equally effective in a positive way. "Atheist," "Red," "Greasy Grind" are typical of opinion forming names. Schools have found and can find good names to popularize their work.

2. The second device may be called the *band wagon* impulse. It is the follow-the-crowd impulse that is being exploited. Propagandists whip up the emotions of the uncritical to make them follow the crowd. Once mass feeling is aroused, they appeal to specific groups, such as women or working men or professional people, through use of subtle appeals in which flattery plays an important part. Each group is made to see itself as the pride or the backbone or the "thinking people" of the community or nation.

3. Another is the use of *glittering generalities*. One of the most potent of all devices used to lure the unwary into emotional states and action is the glittering generality. Even consistent sinners are against sin when it remains a generality and for virtue when it is a glowing abstraction. Many of us have been distressed, in these trying years, at watching the emotions of the populace, here and abroad, being stirred to explosions of hatred, fear, or sacrifice by such words. Stuart Chase, in his *Tyranny of Words*, quotes this from a famous Nazi author:

"The Aryan Fatherland, which has nursed the souls of heroes, calls upon you for the supreme sacrifice which you in whom flows heroic blood, will not fail, and which will echo forever down the corridors of history."

By substituting "blab" for all generalities, he gets:

"The blab blab which has nursed the blab of blab, calls upon you for the blab blab

which you, in whom flows blab blab, will not fail, and which will echo blab blab down the blab of blab."

To flourish in that world—even to endure in it—unselfish institutions like the school must use to good ends all means that can be employed with dignity and effectiveness.

4. A fourth is known as *flag waving*. The flag is a symbol; the cross is the symbol of Christianity; we have countless other symbols which deeply influence our thought and action. Any group or cause wishing to win a popular following adopts a symbol. Note the swastika of the Nazis. Consider the symbol of the Red Cross. Schools have symbols at hand. What better symbol than an open book! It is natural for people to seek symbols to worship, to fear, to hate, or to love. Symbolism in cartoons has been used against the schools and teachers. Certainly it can be employed effectively in their behalf.

5: Still another is the use of *testimonials*. Though used most frequently to sell cigarettes, cosmetics, and patent medicines, testimonials have been effective aids to education but they have also been used to combat any innovation in school or other public service. The school must surely study how to use the testimonial and how to combat it.

6. Finally, there is *stacking the cards*. Good causes are often misrepresented by persons or groups with selfish aims. Omission of essential facts, coloring of statements, overemphasis or underemphasis—these are among the means used to stack the cards for or against an issue or an institution. Sometimes zeal for a good cause like the school leads well-intentioned persons to misrepresent it, while failure to understand, and snap judgment may make others attack it with the same weapons of half-truth and distortion. Both may be disastrous.

In short, schools do not draw their support from a little realm in which everyone thinks clearly and critically, but from a chaotic, plastic world where thought and feeling are being influenced by many selfish forces with differing and sometimes antagonistic points of view.

When the school man has familiarized

himself with the nature of public opinion in general and its directions in his own community, he will find his next logical step to be the development of a set of principles to guide him in winning wider patronage and greater support for his school.

I propose a set of seven principles which have been useful in public school interpretation. Though I have developed each principle at length in my recent book on school interpretation, I shall be brief here.

1. *Publicity should be continuous.*—Far too much of school publicity has been of the campaign sort. Schools have employed all of the skill of commercial sales managers. They have lashed the public into voting bond issues, erecting new buildings, enlarging quarters. Then they have subsided. Within a few weeks, apathy has set in, and a few of the people have even wondered if they were not taken in a little. Schools are wholly dependent on public approval and need good will and active support all the time. No apathetic periods should be allowed. Day in and day out, week after week, in busy seasons and in slack ones, an ever-widening circle of people should be reached by information concerning the school. There may well be periods of intensified effort, rapids as it were, in the stream of information, but there should be no stagnant places.

2. *Publicity should be honest.*—School men have made the mistake of painting too glowing a picture of what is done or can be done. Others have suppressed everything that was not altogether to the institution's credit. When only facts useful in attaining a specific end are selected, the public grows wary. Covering up weaknesses and playing up strong points may be the methods of business but they are not what is expected of institutions serving unselfishly the good of all the people. A school efficiently operated should not hesitate before this principle.

3. *Publicity should be inclusive.*—Only carefully planned, continuous publicity is likely to be inclusive. The campaign focuses on a special or immediate need and neglects the multitude of other activities and facts which the public should know. Incidental or organized publicity is probably even less valuable as it scatters its

efforts, occasionally touching on something vital and revealing, but more often dealing with trivialities or personalities. Sometimes a school man is enthusiastic about some phase of his work and feeds the public that until it appears that his institution has no broader function. One of the first important tasks of the aroused school man is to make a thorough study of his school to see how many ways it can serve the public. Then he can begin to plan a program of interpretation that will be inclusive.

4. *Publicity should be understandable.*—As has been suggested, there is a wide variation in understanding from level to level in any community. What will be completely comprehensible to some parents may be unintelligible to the much larger class of people who give no attention to the school but should be served by it. Even very basic matters of language comprehension are involved. Pictures may be absolutely vital to the understanding of many potential patrons. Certainly the language used in posters, speeches, or newspaper articles must not be technical nor erudite. Pictures and exhibits are universally understandable. Graphs also serve to make clear a text that might otherwise fail to leave the correct impression. A great many people read almost nothing and have difficulty understanding anything but the simplest of prose. They, too, can be reached. Among them the school must count on understanding and appreciation.

5. *Publicity should be dignified but aggressive.*—Politics may lose dignity in the heat of a campaign. Mud may be flung, false claims made, and "ballyhoo" engineered on street corners. People forgive it (or at least expect it in America) and go their way to select the right candidate or the right side of the issue as best they can. But the school must be tactful in its methods. Yet it must be aggressive. School leaders must seek every possibility for circulating essential information. To be thoroughly successful, they must have the aggressiveness of industry without using methods that are dubious.

6. *Publicity should reach everyone in the community.*—No principle is more important than this. Too often the public

school reaches only the most literate classes; often it appeals almost exclusively to its patrons. If interpretation is to reach everyone in the community, it must take recourse to every discoverable agency. It is generally agreed that there must be more popularized writing; there must be lively and revealing photographs; there must be pictorial statistics; there must be exhibits and talks, not only at the school but in sections or groups where the school is little understood. Children are of tremendous importance in school development. A good share of the publicity efforts should be directed toward arousing their enthusiasm.

7. *Publicity should use every facility at hand.*—Finally, as was suggested in discussing the preceding principle, every facility should be utilized. These available will vary from community to community and from time to time, but the educator should be alert always to new means of reaching all the public or hitherto difficult segments of it. He should familiarize him-

self with the most effective school interpretation in other communities, adapting what he can to his own resources. He should read regularly the excellent public relations notes in his professional journals. And he should follow the best work reported in journals of allied fields.

At the risk of appearing importunate, I insist again that we must tell the public all about our schools. It is not merely good policy; it is urgent duty. The conviction has been growing among educators that the responsibility is not only moral but legal. A study by E. F. Moore, published in 1930, found that the courts, in general, sustain that position. We cannot afford to be derelict. We must not stand still when the world is moving so swiftly. Indeed, like a familiar character in *Alice in Wonderland*, we must run hard if we are to stay where we are. How much better must be our pace if we are to move forward to the complete realization of our educational ideals.

Building Confidence in a Demonstration School

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Not long ago I listened to an elderly gentleman discussing his early education. He said if he got a spanking at school he promptly got another one on reaching home without any questions being asked. The teacher was always right.

Until this topic of "Building Confidence in a Demonstration School" was assigned, we had seldom thought of our relationship with parents in this light. When seven hundred people live for a third or more of the day under one roof, the number of problems and adjustments becomes legion. Every personality is in the constant process of adjustment to another personality or a situation. Problems are solved according to ages, our individual philosophies, and our emotional maturity or lack of it and seldom do we pause to consider whether or not we

are enjoying the confidence of those with whom we are associated. It is something taken more or less for granted unless flagrant examples of a lack of it come to our attention.

With this paper in view we began to inquire into our situation to discover, if possible, tangible evidences of confidence in our school on the part of the community. Confidence is such an elusive quality. From the parents' standpoint it no doubt varies with different neighborhoods within the district, with grade levels, with departments and teaching personnel. In the home it may vary with father and mother, and all too often, it varies with the report cards John and Mary bring home.

Increased enrollment cannot be taken as an expression of confidence as our numbers

have remained practically stationary since a full program of kindergarten through the twelfth grade was established. We have a considerable number of tuition pupils, and we should like to feel that this is a tangible, if somewhat commercial, evidence of confidence. We cannot be sure, however, that some of the students do not come to us because the parents may feel a little more social prestige in having their children in the demonstration school. In a few cases of tuition pupils we are, no doubt, the last resource.

A little more certain evidence of confidence might be that, even though a large number of our parents could easily afford to place their children in private schools, the number who have been sent from our district during the nine years of the school's existence are few indeed—and this is in spite of the fact that we have a private school with a good reputation in our city.

Again, it has been difficult to rent a house in the district for some years. Old houses have been rebuilt and new ones erected; and one by one, to our regret, our poorer families have gradually been reduced in numbers. This growth in the economic status of the district may mean increased confidence in the school or merely that our section of the city, being a little higher than the remainder and our basements dryer, that it is a better locality for sinus infections.

Our parents visit school frequently and feel free to ask questions and discuss their children's problems. We would like to feel that this is an expression of confidence but again we may be mistaken. They may be coming to visit because of doubts and a more certain vote of confidence may be offered by the parents who do *not* come and by their absence silently express their approval.

We *have* had definite expressions of confidence which seemed sincere—many of them. But one cannot judge the attitude of an entire community by a few any more than occasional sharp conflicts can be considered indicative of the attitude of the whole community.

Knowing that children reflect the attitudes of parents, perhaps our best indicators of confidence lie within our student

body. Our attendance records are high, and problems in truancy and delinquency are almost negligible.

And so—this question of our status in the confidence of the community is left to your judgment. The mere fact that I am addressing this group on such a topic, upon request, suggests that perhaps we feel confidence is lacking, else why consider it at all? The public would not think for a moment of abandoning our educational systems. They are a part and parcel of our very existence. Our schools stand for law and order. They build character; train minds and bodies; and for good or ill, mold the lives of our boys and girls from their eager admission to their, we hope, reluctant leaving. Isn't it heresy to desire and to establish a system and then to fail in its support? Has any citizen the right to question its authority or superiority? After all, why not leave education in the capable hands of the men and women whose lives are dedicated to its calling? What impertinence to venture on that holy ground where angels fear to tread.

But perhaps that is just the trouble—who knows unless he questions. There is a bare possibility that this sacred sphere is just an extension of the neighborhood backyards, and the personnel is very human. All of us are subject to human frailties. Should not the schools welcome a critical attitude? If the challenge can be met, then everyone is gratified; if not, then there can be no doubt as to the need for investigation. All too often a lazy-minded public indifferently turns its back on this vitally important factor in the lives of its boys and girls, passive to the point of inaction on its vital problems, while many an educational system jogs along in the copybook era utterly ignoring the community from which its children come and to which they return, barren of inspiration.

Certainly in our situation we have had a constantly questioning group of parents and visitors, and we have endeavored to answer their questions and base our objectives on some of the following concepts:

1. Although we may have as many differing philosophies of progressive education as we have teachers under our roof, we have at bottom a foundation of basic

beliefs. Not the least of these is the belief in every child and a wholesome respect for his person and for his individuality. His opinions are respected and from the day he enters until he leaves school he has a voice in making decisions and guiding his own and his group's life according to his ability. He has a voice in the administration of school activities through membership on faculty committees. With the guidance of the teacher his work is planned as largely as possible along the lines which interest him most and in which there will be as much progress as possible in good work habits, in self guidance, and in growth in emotional stability. It is important that he work; it is important that he experience a reasonable amount of success; and it is important that he be assisted in solving his problems both realized and unrealized.

2. Second in our basic philosophies is a belief in the twenty-four-hour day of the child. School for the child must not be a place where he goes as to a movie. It must function in his life—it must develop not just knowledge but specific knowledges and attitudes which will help him solve his own problems that he meets in the community and in his home. Such a philosophy involves a closer contact with the child and his home and with the community than is possible in a few brief school hours. To achieve this there are frequent group meetings—small group meetings of parents interested in the same age group or the same problems. Parents are frequently invited in for ordinary afternoon sessions at school and asked to remain for discussions and conferences. Invitations are usually written or voiced by the children who are made to feel a part of this parent-teacher-school-relationship. Not infrequently the meetings are evening round tables so that fathers may participate. There may be a speaker but often there is not. Some parents come to these meetings quite bewildered by the conflicting memories of their own more formal education and the newer concepts of modern education. But these frank discussions are clearing houses for many and are invaluable to the teacher who knows John and Mary so much more thoroughly from having known the parents.

Large all-school, parent-teacher meetings are infrequent events and are largely social. Little attempt is made to meet the educational interests of so varied a group in such a meeting.

Of equal importance in becoming acquainted with the child's life and needs are home visits. So valuable are these that it is difficult to conceive a progressive school that hopes to meet the needs of its children without the knowledge gained by these contacts with the family, the home, and the neighborhood.

Jane, who is a problem at school because of lack of personal cleanliness and daintiness, is better understood and helped when it is known that she comes from a home of nine children housed in a few small rooms without a bath and with scant opportunities indeed for personal privacy. Johnny's hesitant speech and seeming fatigue in the absence of any apparent physical defect may be better appreciated and understood when it is known that the father he adores is a pathological drunkard. When you know that Tommy's father is a little man with a Napoleonic complex, Tommy's aggressiveness gets a different sort of treatment. These are not strange to you—they have a familiar ring. But in this complex and strenuous civilization, the homes that are free from strain are not legion; and if we are to help each child live his life with a maximum of happiness and meaningfulness, if we deserve the confidence of the child and his parents, a working knowledge of the home and the neighborhood are most desirable. And may I add that in making these home calls, especially if they can be made only at infrequent intervals, that we go, not as teachers and nurses with a lesson in mind, but humbly, as students. If the report from these contacts is such that an easy warm relationship is established, opportunities for teaching will develop richly, but first trust and confidence must be laid.

Parenthetically, I should like to add a note concerning our parent conferences whether at home or at school. Not long ago I saw a clipping to the effect that the knowledge of the world had increased within the past few years to the extent that it would take twenty brilliant men their

entire lives to master it all. Those of us who must necessarily devote nine-tenths of our lives to our professions may unwittingly become used to terms which sound simple enough to us but which fall strangely indeed on many ears. Doctors and nurses are often guilty of this and I suspect those of us in school situations are also. I refer especially to the various psychological terms we have learned to use so freely. Busy fathers and mothers, with the complex demands that are made upon them, too often have little time and often not the background to keep abreast of many fields much as they might desire it. As the saying goes, "It is a rare dog that can dig as he runs," and the more simple and clear are the interpretations we make of our work the greater will be the parents' appreciation and our reward.

These basic principles which we have treated very briefly—the belief in the importance of basing education on the needs of the child; respect for his person; the importance of planning for all his needs—are but a part of the larger objective for which we strive—the mental, social, and physical health of the child. And if we may pick out another factor which perhaps has helped in building community confidence in our school it may be found in the guarding of this last—the physical health of the child.

Since the beginning of the school, we have consistently adhered to the policy that even slightly ill children need to be home and under care, that even a slight cold is potentially dangerous to the child who is afflicted and to his associates. We believe that a carefully supervised school is the safest place to send a child—one that is not is no better than a movie from the standpoint of contagion. We have talked immunization for the preventable diseases until the less willing parents have cooperated from sheer weariness of the problem. This is the tenth year of the school and in those ten years there have been only four cases of smallpox and only five of diphtheria. For four years we had no case of either. Last year we had a case of diphtheria in the kindergarten and this year we requested that every child in the kindergarten be vaccinated for smallpox and immunized

for diphtheria. We received one hundred per cent cooperation.

In closing may I add that if I were building a Utopian school for the future there are some things I should certainly change. As a person keenly interested in health I should first of all lighten the load of the American teacher. I know of no profession whose pace is more gruelling than that of the teaching profession. The successful teacher must be first of all a rather competent personal secretary to herself and have no small number of hours at her disposal for the endless succession of reports, forms, records, and questionnaires which find their way to her desk and are an inevitable part of her program. She must also be a housekeeper of no mean skill if she teaches the elementary grades or the arts or sciences. The number of two-, three-, and four-letter organizations to which she must belong, whose meetings she should attend, and whose publications she should read are legion. She must sponsor various organizations inside and outside the school that are frequently fatiguing and largely thankless. She should be active in a civic way and there are church and social obligations. The average teacher, as you know, does not add these to her program. They are a part of her job even if they are not in the contract for the job for which she was specifically hired. With her energies dissipated in so many directions, I do not wonder that poor jobs of teaching are done—rather that so many fine pieces of work are accomplished. And because I have used the feminine pronoun please do not think I am unappreciative of the situation of the men. The average schoolman not only bears an equal load, but he usually has a family which is entitled to a portion of his time and which he sees all too briefly.

I would give the teacher in the new school large airy rooms, classrooms, work rooms, rest rooms, and all rooms as nearly sound proof as possible. There would be secretaries available for clerical work. I would give her a psychologist and a nurse for every two hundred children. I should provide a car and sufficient time for home calls. And last, but by no means least, I should engage that teacher not for her

degrees alone but for her ability to live with children, to understand and love them, and to help them grow.

As we stated in the beginning, definite proof of confidence in an educational institution is a very intangible thing to demonstrate. But certainly it is most desirable that the rapport between home and school become such that the life of the child flows harmoniously from one to the other and that we realize his necessity for feeling jointly secure in both situations—that we become known to the home and the home to us, in order that this American child shall learn to be a little more expert in living and solving the increasing problems of this

complex civilization. As someone has so aptly said, "All our lives long we are engaged in adjusting our changed and unchanged selves to a changed and unchanged world. When we fail in it a little we are stupid, when we fail flagrantly we are mad, when we suspend it temporarily we sleep, and when we give it up altogether we die."

No doubt we have as many teaching philosophies as we have teachers on our staffs. The opinions expressed here are merely mine. If any of our teachers are present and wish to add or subtract to this brief discussion, I shall be most happy to have them.

Acquainting Future Teachers with School-Community Relationships

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At the present time we hear much of school-community relations. There seem to be two interpretations of this problem which we hear discussed under such topics as "Community Schools," "The Community, a Laboratory for the Schools," and "Youth Serves the Community." One group would make "the school a community center and constantly draw more and more activities into the school." This group would establish nursery schools and kindergartens as a part of the public school system and increase the compulsory school age to eighteen so that all children receive a high school education and perhaps some junior college work. This would mean that the school should assume many responsibilities that have been thought of as belonging to the home, the library, the church, movies, Boy Scouts, High Y, Blue Tri, Y.M.C.A. and Y. W. C. A., and other agencies in the community. The use of the school building for social activities, adult interests, and vocational groups is another aspect of this belief. Broadly speaking a school centered community is the goal.

Another group believes in taking "the school out into the community," in order to strengthen the various agencies in the community. This group would encourage adult education and recreational programs of Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A. It would promote the use of the public library, play centers, museums, city parks, radio, and movies so that a more wholesome and worth-while leisure time program for young and old could be carried on. In brief, a community-centered school is the goal.

Ideally these two interpretations are not opposed to each other for they both have in mind the importance of social living for the greatest number. People today recognize the fact that except for the development of certain specialized skills, the school is not the most powerful educational influence. The home, the neighborhood groups, the radio, the movies, books, magazines, newspapers, and industry with all its problems operate powerfully to form the basic attitudes which underlie and control the conduct of any individual, young or old. The planned co-ordination of all these

educational influences is necessary. The school with its community becomes the setup for the education of children. The new curriculum is defined as the life of the child in-the-school and out-of-school.

The teacher of the social studies stands in a strategic position and should take the lead in relating school living and community life. The responsibility for finding the best techniques for educating children in a changing community faces every teacher, but the actual work usually falls to the lot of the teacher of social studies.

The Francis Parker School in Chicago stands out as one of the earliest schools in the country to connect school learning with the reality of the environment. James S. Tippet in *Schools for a Growing Democracy* has described the life of the Parker school district and how the school dealt with it. Paul Hanna in *Youth Serves the Community* has told how youth can participate in community life.

Many books and magazines have described how young children help solve traffic problems, health problems, and many others if given the opportunity. Many teachers today are utilizing the community resources for educative experiences through trips, vacation activities, and clubs. Nearly all educational conferences in the last year have included the relation of the school to the community as an important aspect of modern education. All these indicate trends of thought and current practices which may well serve as hints and helps to resourceful, alert teachers who have a vision of the new curriculum.

If teachers are to use the community as a laboratory, it will be necessary to begin guiding those who are preparing to become teachers into techniques of making community surveys, conducting worth-while trips, establishing a materials bureau, and planning summer vacation and leisure time interests in addition to helping them organize their classrooms on a functional basis. Students in training may not find much in their own school experiences that will be usable as a basis for understanding these newer practices. The re-education of teachers in service also needs consideration. Teachers who have been accustomed to assemble materials, plan procedures, set

the stage, and let the program function as planned will find it difficult to adjust to these changes.

The teacher today will need to explore the community for its educational possibilities and resources. She will need to scout and prospect for experiences that have educative value. She must be aware of the health facilities, the libraries, the play centers, welfare agencies, housing conditions, and historical places of interest. Practical and workable contacts with all the industries and agencies in the community must be established. It will take the principal of the school, committees of teachers and supervisors, committees of pupils, individual teachers, parents, and citizens working together on a program to make known the educative possibilities of the school community.

As yet teachers and educators have not gone much beyond talking about the environment and its possibilities. Very few of the most recent curricula mention the use of the community. Very few schools have established a materials bureau or extended the school into the community by means of trips. Many academic minded people, traditional administrators, and patrons look questioningly at this new trend. Too many classroom teachers say they would do more things if they had the materials or if they felt free to try out some of these innovations. They are told that the use of such teaching techniques tends to disrupt the mechanical organization of the school and demand additional expenditures. However, putting materials and visual aids within the reach of teachers is quite necessary if the school curriculum is to be made more realistic.

Merely having an attractive room with beautiful pictures, colorful hangings, potted plants, and the "last word" in movable furniture is no longer sufficient. It helps very much, but more is needed. There are many classrooms today with library corners, news corners, nature centers, books, and maps and charts, but too often these are provided by the teacher and are her own personal property. In some places supplementary books, pictures, and maps are wholly lacking. It is not an exaggeration to state that at least half of the

elementary schools throughout the country are poorly equipped and have no more than two or three sets of supplementary readers and a dozen ten-cent storybooks.

Ideally every classroom should have a variety of materials, an abundance of visual aids, and the group should have the privilege of going out into the community whenever the work in the classroom calls for it. But many of these materials and much of the equipment is used only once or twice a year. The establishment of a materials bureau for the use of all the teachers has proved a satisfactory solution for the lack of materials in many places. This means that a general supply room has been set aside where materials are collected, cataloged, annotated, and made available to all the teachers in the school to be used co-operatively. The task of assembling all these materials is an enormous one. Hundreds of letters must be written asking for illustrative exhibits. Pictures must be secured from old magazines, calendars, and other sources. These must be mounted, annotated, and organized under some kind a caption—unit, subject, or topic. Addresses of book companies and supply houses as well as catalogs must be collected and filed. Some definite system of tabulation and arrangement must be agreed upon so that the materials and information are in order all the time.

A beginning in this enterprise can be made from almost nothing if the group of teachers is willing to co-operate and contribute. As a rule the principal arranges and fosters this service with the aid of a clerk. Some schools have added a teacher for this purpose. A part of the duty of this extra person is to work with the various industries and agencies in the community and to help teachers in using the community most effectively through the materials bureau. The county superintendent renders the same service for the consolidated schools and for the one- and two-room schools in his county. His office or an adjoining room becomes the distributing center.

Rules and regulations concerning the use of these materials become essential.

Tippett¹ has explained how his teachers arranged for the use of materials by filing annotated cards, by limiting the length of time materials could be used by one teacher, and by levying a fine for infringement of rules.

The materials bureau should contain as a nucleus the following things:

1. Unit books relating to the units of work developed in the various classrooms.
2. Many supplementary books (readers, geographies, histories, science stories) as well as sets of six or more textbooks that would help with units of work or an experience curriculum.
3. Pictures from magazines and calendars organized and classified according to subjects and units of work.
4. Slides, movie reels, and stereographs to supplement the text.
5. Exhibits, objects, specimens, miniature models, reproductions, and the like. Commercial exhibits of raw and manufactured products such as cotton, wool, silk, rayon, rubber, corn, and the like.
6. Bulletins, pamphlets, and descriptions of units and professional books for teachers.
7. Tools for construction work—hammers, saws, and planes.
8. Models made by children at various times—costumes, paintings, and cars.
9. A filing case containing addresses and catalogs of commercial companies that supply educational materials.
10. A filing case of places in the community that can be visited, the name of the person who has charge of the trips, a statement of the best hour and way to visit a place, and the points of value allocated by age-grade levels to children, and a record of all trips taken and by whom to avoid duplication.

A program of this kind is bound to cost more than the traditional textbook recitation method. In time it will modify the whole school program. Greater emphasis will be placed upon creative teaching—learning situations in-school and out-of-school.

¹James S. Tippett *et al*, *Schools for a Growing Democracy*, (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936), 338 pp.

Lest someone feel that too much emphasis is being placed upon the use of materials in the school, attention needs to be called to the use of trips and excursions where direct relationships can be set up between facts taught and actual things.

New schemes and plans for making known the needs of the school as well as the educative values of the community need to be worked out. Visual education departments, consultation service departments, or something similar should be a part of every school system. It is obvious that all the environment and all the factors and aspects of a community are a part of the social studies curriculum when the purpose of social studies is to help boys and girls understand, interpret, and actively participate in the social life of which they are a part. The use of community surveys, school surveys, inventories of children's social experience, and self-surveys for the teacher of social studies are suggested as ways and means of relating school living and community living.

FINDING OUT ABOUT THE COMMUNITY

Each community and each school has its own characteristic environment which a teacher must understand and use if she is to be happy and successful in her work. One of the greatest demands made upon beginning teachers is the transformation expected of them between June, when degrees are conferred, and September, when schools open. Many young enthusiastic teachers enter the teaching profession in a new community and assume full self-responsibility for the first time. Not always does success and happiness await them. The beginning teacher as well as the experienced teacher in a new environment who wishes to accomplish the most in the shortest period of time and with the greatest satisfaction to herself and her school will first orient herself. That is, she will set out to put herself in the right relation to the children in the classroom, to the school system, to the staff of the school with whom she is to have daily contacts, and to the community in which she is to live and work. All this simplifies the problem of getting underway a program of school living that is functional

and at the same time related to community living.

One plan of orientation is through (1) surveying and exploring the community in some systematic way; (2) inventorying the social experiences and background of the children in her classroom; and (3) studying the educational philosophy of the school system. In addition, she should take a self inventory of her own personal qualifications, her background of knowledge and social experiences, and her teacher education in relation to the problem before her.

The word *community* has many different interpretations. The community includes not only the immediate physical surroundings but the people who live and work and seek recreational activities within certain boundaries. The area considered may be the immediate school neighborhood. It may be a section of a city, the entire city, or it may include the largest nearby city. It may even be extended to include the state. Whatever conception is held regarding the community, it must be large enough for the teacher to develop with her group of elementary children concepts about people and their work as they are influenced by physical surroundings—social understandings of miners, doctors, farmers, business, post office, education, factories, fire departments, libraries, railroads, housing conditions, health, and theaters. All these social understandings are made real through contacts in the community.

Many of the community resources may be utilized inside the classroom through exhibits, collections, reports of committees and individuals, and talks given by visitors. Not always does using the community mean leaving the schoolroom and going out to see things in their natural setting. Many times the emphasis is placed upon observations, followed by discussions rather than actual participation in some community enterprise. The safety clubs, goodwill clubs, and health clubs that co-operate with the community organizations emphasize active participation rather than observation. Many school systems today are engaged in schemes to promote school-centered communities.

The community itself is usually made aware of the need for closer contacts be-

SURVEYING THE COMMUNITY

Conditions to Observe	Appraisal
<p>A. Physical Conditions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Is the climate and location conducive to health? 2. Are there evidences of natural resources? 3. Do people show community pride in maintaining natural beauty and the beauty of their personal property? 4. Are the roads improved so that the community is not isolated at any time? 5. Is the community well planned in regard to the residential, factory, and business districts? <p>B. Social Conditions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Is the community interested in maintaining educational opportunities (schools, colleges, libraries, museums)? 2. Are organized social groups provided for (churches, hospitals, charity, Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., Boy Scouts)? 3. Are adults provided with recreational facilities? 4. Is provision made for the recreational interests of children? 5. Is it a typical American community? 6. Are there desirable local leaders? 7. Is the community tolerant toward the personal habits of teachers? <p>C. Economic Conditions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Are housing conditions satisfactory? 2. Are the standards of living for the average person desirable? 3. Can shopping needs be fulfilled? 4. Are adequate public services provided (fire and police protection, water, light, heat, sewage and garbage disposal, train and bus facilities)? 5. Is the community predominantly agricultural or industrial? 6. Is there reasonable demand for the common occupations and vocations? 	
<p>Summary Question: Is the community a place in which you would like to live and teach?</p>	

tween school life and community life through school administrators and parent-teacher organizations. Whether this be the case or not, some of the questions which every teacher as an individual in a new community seeks to answer by an orientation program are:

In what kind of community am I located?

How do the people in the community regard the school and the teacher?

What school conditions do I find?

What materials and equipment are available?

What types of children do I find in my classroom?

How can I best adjust myself to the new situation?

How is the social studies program a part of all this?

Probably the most valuable and easiest way to answer some of these questions is through surveying and exploring in a systematic way the community and school environment. No matter how superficial a sight-seeing trip about the community may seem, it is worth-while and, no matter how factual some of the observations may be, it will serve as an overview of the physical, social, and economic conditions of the community. If it is an industrial center with steel or coal as the most important occupation, some hint as to selection of units of work is obtained. The recreational and educational facilities and the social centers will indicate attention given to leisure time interests. Through them she may seek opportunities to become acquainted with parents, young people, and organized groups. Taking an active interest in the people of

a community often gives the teacher social and economic security.

Much information about a community may be obtained from study of maps, bulletins, and folders distributed by service clubs and by civic organizations. Talks with residents in the community are enlightening and worth-while. The appearance of homes, hotels, and business houses and the condition of the streets will show civic pride or lack of it.

A community survey is described in detail by Fay Rogers in Krey's *A Regional Program for the Social Studies*.² She says that when she started to make one it seemed a very simple piece of work but as she worked and completed the survey she considered it "the most profoundly educative enterprise" she had even undertaken. First she drove up and down the streets writing down all things of social significance. Later this material was organized under three aspects of the social sciences—economic, political, and social. Second, she called on many people—managers of factories, the grocer's clerk, the minister, the garbage collector, the man who trimmed the trees, the head of a dairy—and engaged in conversation with them in order to gain worth-while information and broaden her view of the community. Some records and interpretations of her study are given which would prove helpful for teachers interested in making rather extensive surveys.

The community survey sheet, which is shown on page 93, was organized by a college class studying the changing elementary school curriculum. It was used in studying home communities, the laboratory school community in connection with a teachers college, certain school districts in a large city, and a few consolidated schools in a rural community.

KNOW YOUR SCHOOL

Just as important as surveying the school community is studying the educational policies and practices of the school system in which one is to teach. The teacher should visit the school building and her classroom before school opens, if it is pos-

sible. A conference with the principal and perhaps some of the other teachers is highly desirable but not always practical. Some people might not understand the motive back of such conferences. Familiarizing herself with the course of study, the materials and equipment in the classrooms, the library facilities, and certain school rules that affect all teachers and groups is an essential part of planning her work. Making the classroom attractive with pictures, flowers, a few books, and personal belongings will make the environment attractive to children and perhaps stimulate in them a desire to participate in such matters.

A conference with the superintendent or principal, after one is employed, in which the teacher seeks advice and information about the community, children, courses of study, attitudes toward modern trends in education, and the materials and equipment of the school will prove most valuable. It is the teacher's privilege and duty to find out about such matters as:

What library facilities the school affords.

What supplementary readers and books are available for use in the classroom.

What supplies, if any, such as paper, crayons, paste, and construction materials are furnished.

What steps are taken to secure these supplies.

Whether or not a parent-teacher association is active and interested in school affairs.

What the reactions of parents are likely to be to innovations, such as, the unit method of teaching, taking trips, and the like.

What courses of study are available and how closely one is expected to follow them.

What testing programs are used.

A survey of the community should be followed by a survey of the school itself to determine the viewpoints underlying the curriculum, the attitude of parents and citizens toward progressive education, the interest of parents in the school life of their children and the attitude of administrators and teachers in a system toward innovations. Many times a person speaks convincingly of the new education, the ac-

²A. C. Krey, *A Regional Program for the Social Studies* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 140.

SURVEYING THE CURRICULUM IN ACTION IN THE CLASSROOM

Items Observed	Appraisal
<p>A. Classroom Environment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Is space adequate for desirable group activities? 2. Is there an abundance of materials conducive to learning (books, toys, plants, animals, building materials, etc.)? 3. Are units of work in progress which show individual and group participation? 4. Is there a practical application of the fundamental skills? <p>B. Classroom Atmosphere</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Is there a friendly pupil-teacher relationship? 2. Is democratic living operating? 3. Does the work proceed smoothly and harmoniously? 4. Are good work habits being developed? 5. Is joy in achievement apparent? <p>C. Classroom Teacher</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Has she keen insight into individual differences (interests, abilities, etc.)? 2. Does she adapt readily to emergencies, interruptions, and to the solution of immediate problems? 3. Is she tactful with suggestions? 4. Does she have a pleasing manner and voice? 5. Does she set a good example by her personal appearance? <p>D. The Children</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Do they utilize available material for group and individual needs? 2. Are they responsible for their own contributions—attitudes, conduct, speech? 3. Are they actively interested in work at hand? 4. Do they help plan, execute, and evaluate their work? 5. Is there evidence of voluntary outside work? 	
<p>Summary Question: Is the conception of a new and changing curriculum in evidence?</p>	

tivities curriculum, and units of work, but a visit inside the classroom tells another story.

A view of the curriculum in action usually reveals the philosophy of the teachers and administrators very quickly. For that purpose the survey sheet above was devised and used very successfully in a number of classrooms.

INVENTORYING CHILDREN'S SOCIAL INFORMATION AND INTERESTS

The teacher who wishes to orient herself quickly will find that a survey of the social information and background of the individual children in her classroom is valuable. If standardized tests, school psychologists, and school nurses are not available, she can make her own inventory in an informal way using a form similar to the one on page 96.

By inventorying the social background of

experience and information which children have, the teacher becomes aware of their interests and needs. Since the teacher in the elementary school has the tremendous duty of leading young children to understand American life on their maturation level she must be keen in sensing their interests and must be resourceful in meeting their needs.

She must know the natural drives of the children, their social experiences, and their home environments. From what kinds of homes and neighborhoods do they come? How varied are the social backgrounds and how rich or meager is the social information of the individuals of her group? What are their leisure time interests and activities? Do they have and make use of play centers, parks, branch libraries, and children's theaters? The teacher who is alert will find that an inventory blank such as the one

on page 97 may be a time saver and very helpful in understanding the group as a whole and adjusting the work to meet specific interests and needs. It will help her in selecting and guiding worth-while activities in school and out. It may be necessary in the lower grade to have the parents fill out the information sheets. The information received from individual inventories may be summarized on a large chart that shows the home conditions and social backgrounds of the entire group.

The school day is far too short to study and guide each individual as he deserves. Problem cases should be referred to the school psychologist, to a case worker, or to

a welfare director, if possible. However, a few case studies made by the teacher are of infinite value to her in understanding all of her group. To many people this may seem an over emphasis upon surveys, but the purpose behind the suggestions is to help the teacher orient herself in her work and to help her make it more interesting and effective from the beginning.

The importance attached to understanding the community in which one teaches, the philosophy of the school, and the individual interests and needs of the pupils warrants some time being spent in college in helping students make surveys and use the results. The value of knowing the

SURVEYING CHILDREN IN THE CLASSROOM

NAME OF CHILD _____
ADDRESS _____
AGE _____ GRADE _____

INFORMATION DESIRED

A. Family Life

1. How many live in your home? _____
2. How many brothers and sisters have you? _____
3. How many rooms in your home? _____
4. Do you have running water in the house? _____
5. Do you have a car now? _____
6. Do you have a radio now? _____
7. Do you take a newspaper now? _____
8. Who earns the living for the family? _____
9. What is father's occupation? _____
10. What is mother's occupation? _____
11. What is your work outside the home? _____

B. Child's Work and Play Life

1. With whom do you play? _____
2. Where do you play? _____
3. What do you play? _____
4. To what clubs do you belong? _____
5. What is your hobby outside of school? _____
6. What do you like best about school? _____
7. What things do you dislike about school, if any? _____
8. When do you go to the city branch library? _____
9. What kind of books do you like best? _____
10. What radio programs do you like best? _____
11. What kind of movies do you like? _____
12. What trips have you taken during the vacations with your parents? _____
13. What work in the world would you like to do when you grow up? _____

C. Child's All-Round Development

1. Physical development? _____
2. Intellectual development? _____
3. Social development? _____
4. Emotional development? _____
5. Language development? _____
6. Creative self-expression? _____

SURVEY OF CLASSROOM GROUP

BASED UPON INDIVIDUAL SURVEY DATA

Number of children in the group	Boys	Girls	Total
General physical development	Good	Average	Poor
General intellectual development	High	Average	Low
General social development	Good	Average	Poor
General emotional development	Good	Average	Poor
General language development	Good	Average	Poor
Creative self expression	High	Average	Low
Number of people in the homes			
Number of sisters and brothers			
Number of modern homes			
Numbers of cars owned now			
Number of radios owned now			
Number of newspapers owned now			
Numbers of people earning a living			
Occupations of people in the homes			
Children's play interests			
Children's hobbies			
Children's school likes			
Children's school dislikes			
Children's reading interests			
Children's radio likes			
Children's movie interests			
Children's trips			

school-community and understanding the problems of living in it happily and successfully cannot be over-estimated. Therefore, an attempt should be made to acquaint

students preparing to teach with the value and purpose of establishing desirable school-community relationships.

Participation by College Students in School and Community Activities

Lucile Jones

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Evansville, Indiana

Not many years ago the word *extra-curricula* entered our educational vocabularies. Although these extra-curricular activities crept into our schools gradually, they have won for themselves an important place in the educational program and are today rapidly becoming a part of the regular school curriculum.

From a limited study of how college students are participating in school and community activities, the experiences seem to group themselves in the following classifi-

cations:

1. Student-faculty committees
2. Social organizations
3. Honorary societies
4. Professional clubs
5. Community activities carried on in connection with class work
6. Community organizations

As a means of illustrating concretely how these activities are made to function, I shall describe briefly some experiences that

the students are having at Evansville College.

A number of years ago there existed at Evansville College a student government organization which in theory was to assume responsibility for solving many of the problems at the college growing out of the various student activities. In practice, it meant that the students were assuming responsibility for deciding questions for which they did not have the necessary background or mature judgment that comes through experience.

About eight years ago a new organization was formulated known as the Student-Faculty Federation. It functions through an administrative board and eight committees. The administrative board is composed of the president of the college, the deans of men and women, the dean of the college, and three students who are selected by a vote of the students. The board is executive in nature. Although the eight committees are given a great deal of freedom in accomplishing the tasks assigned to them, the administrative board reviews the work of all the committees.

The following committees, each composed of three faculty members and three students, co-operate with the administrative board in carrying out the policies of the college: athletics, fine arts, promotion and public occasions, public speech, publications, religious life, social life, and welfare. This plan of organization provides a means for bringing the students and faculty together in solving the problems which arise in connection with the various activities of the college.

For years colleges have realized the value of providing opportunities for the students to work together in social clubs or fraternities. The members of these organizations have valuable experiences while assuming the responsibility for the various activities throughout the year.

The honorary societies, such as Pi Gamma Mu, bring together groups of advanced students, faculty, and alumni in studying and discussing topics of common interest.

Recently there seems to be developing more interest in the professional clubs in the various departments. Perhaps one of the outstanding values of these clubs is

that they provide opportunities for the students in the four classes to become better acquainted. An attempt is made in all of the professional clubs to provide meaningful experiences for the members. The Home Economics Club plans for its members to help in preparing and serving teas, dinners, etc., both at the college and in the homes of the faculty members. The members of the newly organized Association for Childhood Education branch in the department of education are co-operating with the Visual Education Department in the city schools by assisting teachers with groups of children going on excursions. The juniors and seniors from this organization contribute their services as substitutes in the city schools so that teachers may visit other schools or attend educational meetings.

In connection with the class work an attempt is made to provide opportunities for the students to participate in community activities. Some of the students, preparing to teach, elect courses in the field of sociology, many of which require a number of hours of work with the social agencies in the city. The education students not taking these courses profit by hearing the reports of the experiences of others who are doing the work.

Plans have been made with the head of the public libraries to have students in the children's literature class assist with the story hours in the city libraries. These experiences will be valuable to the students in observing how children react to the stories and also will provide opportunities for motivating a study of the subject.

As Evansville College is located in a city of more than a hundred thousand population, there are many opportunities for the students actively to participate in many community organizations such as the Community Players, the Civic Chorus, the Philharmonic Orchestra, and the various church activities.

Many of the students find it necessary to work as a means of obtaining a college education. The experiences gained through the contacts made in employment have proved helpful in personality development.

The problem at Evansville College does

not seem to be that of finding worth-while school and community activities, but rather in seeing that all of the students are given

opportunities to participate and that each student will have a variety of experiences during his four years in college.

Laboratory School Observations

Noble Lee Garrison
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Anyone in visiting classroom work is concerned with two of the greatest activities in education—learning and teaching. I am particularly anxious to speak tonight with special reference to these activities in relation to what was seen here today. Part of the effective work that must have impressed itself upon everyone was due to the excellent plant and extensive equipment provided in the laboratory school. This would be a decided stimulus and challenge to all concerned—supervising teachers, student teachers, and pupils. To me the most striking impression was the co-operative, helpful, constructive attitude of the pupils and student teachers. This, I am sure, may be attributed to several fundamental factors. Among the most important of these should be mentioned the contact with the laboratory school which the college students have during their first two years in college. This keeps them in touch with the work going on in the school, keeps them aware of training problems and ways and means of meeting them, and through their interpretation of experiences in the training they come to appreciate the special significance of teaching and feel more at home in training school situations. It is rather natural, therefore, when they begin student teaching, that they enter upon their activities very confidently and freely. Another factor that should further this attitude is the double period given to special methods courses. While they are taught by one training supervisor in this college course, they spend the extra period observing under all the training supervising teachers dealing with that particular subject. An entire term of this co-operative

type of work, in which the student teacher gets very well acquainted with the pupils whom he will teach in succeeding terms, is most helpful in developing this co-operative and self-confident attitude.

I was particularly interested in observing the work in mathematics carried on primarily by means of supervised study. I was interested, not particularly because of the supervised study, but because it emphasized one of the neglected phases of pupil development. There is probably no aspect of pupil development which means more to the individual while in school, as well as later throughout life, than that of developing the ability to study effectively. This applies very definitely to one of the major classroom activities to which I referred in the beginning—learning—and effective methods and habits of work can be developed only by learning and study wherein the appropriate methods are selected and adaptively used by pupils in their daily work. Not only must they be used daily but they must be consistently used in getting the work done. A child cannot know the better learning processes without learning them, and by trial and error he may not discover which are the better procedures. Anyone, who makes a study of the learning habits of children by observing them in their work or by asking them how they proceed with their study, soon becomes convinced that they have few definite convictions to guide their work. Indeed, what chance has a pupil to learn effective methods of work and to develop good habits of study unless his teachers year by year co-operate to provide reasonable opportunities for consistent, well-organized learning in

these respects. At present, what is the picture throughout the country relative to this fundamental aim of education—to develop effective habits of work and study? It is this: each teacher is very much a law unto herself in this work, and the pupil must make the adjustments as best he can as he goes from grade to grade, or in the departmentalized school or high school as he goes from teacher to teacher, and is made to study in many and often conflicting ways.

This is most unfortunate for the good of the child. Sooner or later teachers are going to have to face rather frankly this whole question of teaching children to study. Very likely the question will arise in most schools as it did a few years ago in one where a business-like mother rather bluntly asked the principal of an elementary and junior high school why her children had not been taught to work efficiently. She emphasized the fact that these children had done all of their work in school and had studied only under the direct supervision of the teachers here for from six to nine years. There was practically no home study. Those children were now being criticized for poor methods of study and this mother pointedly expressed her opinion that if the teachers of this school really cared to teach children to study, they should be able to do so in six or nine years, especially when they have had complete supervision and direction of such study.

Teaching children to study should be attacked in the same co-operative way that our schools now teach children to read, and nothing short of such co-operation which gives the children consistent experience working with sound methods of study in all their work from the kindergarten throughout the public schools can be justified.

One of the most important factors of either learning or teaching is the organized way in which one proceeds with the work. From psychology we understand that any development of ability on the part of children can be acquired only through learning the appropriate skills, knowledge, and attitudes relative to such ability. This conviction seems to be shared by educators throughout the country and teachers have accepted it as true. Our courses of study

at the present time have outcomes expressed in terms of the knowledges, skills, and attitudes of the specific subjects to give teachers guidance in these respects. Also from psychology and successful teaching practices we know that there are organized procedures that are best suited to acquire these particular outcomes. These learning processes also seem to be universally accepted by educators throughout the country. There is, therefore, little excuse for teachers not to agree on the fundamental principles and procedures. If they should examine, for example, the outlines for the reasoning, thinking, or problem-solving type of work presented by writers of textbooks in the last decade or two, they would find a remarkable uniformity—so remarkable that children in the upper grades could pick out the main elements that should be stressed in their study. And it is these common elements that make up the organized procedure for study when one is trying to solve problems or think things through. The same thing can be said regarding the better procedures for drill and practice to give the proper organization to study in developing skills. If these are to represent the organized attack that children are to make in their study and the procedures they should follow in doing their work, it is evident what the organization or technique of the teaching which is to help pupils learn better should be.

This leads us to the second major assumption I wish to make regarding teaching and learning, and that is that they should be rational, purposeful activities. Another is that each activity should be as skillfully and effectively handled as possible.

In attempting to make teaching rational, highly purposeful and definitely so, I believe teachers are seeking their greatest aid to development in teaching. Teachers should not be in doubt as to the best ways to organize their efforts in getting a particular piece of work done. And they should not be in doubt as to the procedures to use in determining the content or the outcomes to be achieved. Teachers should be able to think these things through and do them for definite well-understood reasons. In addition, teachers should be free

to exercise their judgment in using these techniques and procedures adaptively in teaching children; but in doing so they should be required to meet pupil needs in the light of the basic aims and purposes of the school and of education. Anyone, for example, who understands and appreciates the value and efficiency of the organized procedure to do reflective thinking, called problem-solving, and who does not adapt it to her purposes in helping pupils do the things they should be doing, by selecting and using only the elements or steps that are needed, has not learned that these principles and processes of education are tools with which to work, are means to an end, and are not patterned processes to be followed as such. We still hear individuals who deplore the fact that organized processes for learning and for teaching were ever discovered because some misguided teacher blindly uses them as fixed patterns of procedure and puts all pupils through all the steps and in a fixed order. It would be just as foolish to deplore the fact that the addition combinations became known because some teacher might revert to ancient practices of teaching these combinations in some memoriter, abstract, and formal manner, going from the simple to the complex in terms of number size. Hence, I repeat my first principle, teaching should be a rational, purposeful activity. Teachers should be able to select the proper organization to guide development of the work and to plan suitable procedures for getting the desired pupil activity in carrying on such work. Likewise she should know how to determine just what aspects or steps of the techniques and procedures she uses should be used in dealing with particular pupil difficulties. All of this should be done for clear, definite reasons. With this as a fundamental principle and fact of her teaching, the teacher will in time develop skill and power in using these tools efficiently and in gaining the ends sought because she can plan, teach, and judge her work in the light of these basic guides. The pupil's development, his integrative development, is the constant objective; and the great hope of education is that it has these professional tools with which to work, and that teachers will be

educated to their adaptive and effective use in teaching. Along that line, I feel sure, lies progress—sound progress.

As a further basis for my talk tonight, I wish to call your attention to the Progressive Education Association program now going forward at Windsor in Ontario, Canada. I do this for the simple reason that any teacher education that does not consider the basic factors in this program of what is called progressive education, which in reality is just good modern teaching, is falling short of its possibilities. In my visiting the demonstration work this morning, I was also concerned with the extent to which the teaching and learning seemed to measure up to these basic factors.

Accordingly, I'd like to have you note the inclusiveness as well as the fundamental nature of the elements of good teaching in this P.E.A. program.

Determining the individual needs of pupils

Selecting and organizing educative experiences to meet these individual needs

Relating the content and method to individual needs

Utilizing resources for educational progress

No one would question the necessity for teachers in training to be prepared to do the specific things stressed in the above program. Somehow they must be able to determine the significant needs of the individual pupils and to arrive at their relative importance to such pupils for their next best development. Somehow they must be able to bridge the gap between needs and the educative experience and the content and method that would be best to use in meeting such needs. In doing these things, they are also obligated today to utilize the community as well as school resources for educative experiences that would be helpful in achieving educational progress both in the pupil's development and in the school system's professional development.

The first issue of this program, determining pupil needs, does not offer serious obstacles to an organized and rational attack. Through our experiences with pupils in coming to know them intimately in connection with the work in hand, we become

aware of many vital needs; by means of tests, informal and standard, we are able to check our subjective reactions. In addition, by skillful use of the socialized classroom procedures we are able to explore the extent of the pupils' control and independence in thinking and working in the field, topic, or problem work under consideration.

It is at this point, however, that we cease our rational attack in many cases and resort to conjecturing of various kinds. For many this is necessary because they are not aware of or do not use the contributions of psychology in proceeding with the problems involved. For example, it is not enough to know that Mary did not prepare her work today and cannot report as she promised. The why is more specific than this and needs to be analyzed and understood in terms of the primary outcomes or controls she does not have. Thus, further investigation leads to the basic fact that she is not interested any more in reporting because of a new interest that is taking all her time and attention. Her attitude is wrong. Also, Bill shows poor preparation when called upon for a report. He later asks the teacher for help in reading his story so well that all will enjoy it. He needs a better understanding of what appreciative reading requires and more skill in reading that way. Here we have the keys—the outcomes of knowledges, skills, and attitudes which are offered us by the psychology of learning with which to continue our rational development of teaching—in selecting the content, the methods, and the most promising educative activities to provide the needed experiences.

Thus, all learning and work should be well-organized. Who has not heard a teacher comment appreciatively upon the quality of work and the efficient methods certain pupils and students consistently display in all their work, curricular or extra-curricular? Somehow they have learned how to recognize their efforts and have become skillful in selecting such organizations and adapting them to their ends—really using them as tools and means with which to work and to get things done. This is modern, efficient study.

Cannot we expect the same thing of teachers even student teachers? Obviously,

yes; but we must help them gain control of the principles and procedures with which to think their way through the varied teaching situations that arise. To do this we must again turn to psychology for aid.

Note the stage of development reached a moment ago. The needs were analyzed into the knowledges, skills, and appreciations or attitudes the pupils must acquire to meet such needs. If we do not carry the analysis of needs on to this point, we will not be able to select either the content or the method in any rational manner. As a result, we resort to guessing and chance and assign a unit or topics not yet studied in the hope that the pupil may meet his needs thereby.

It would be folly for a teacher to try to teach knowledges where skills alone are needed to meet the pupil needs. Hence, knowing the particular kind of result sought, it is readily possible for a teacher who knows his subject or field to select just the content needed and the most suitable teaching procedures.

Now there is another phase of method that we are prone to overlook both in college and in the public schools, and that is that the efficiency of teaching depends as much on how adaptively the organization is carried out as it is in selecting the organization itself.

All teaching must have good organization, psychological or otherwise, depending on results sought. But also all teaching must have the organization effectively handled, administered, or carried out through pupil co-operation and responsibility.

Pupils' needs are never solely subject matter in the traditional sense. They may also be in methods of work or study or in some phase of independence in work. It was a great day for education when the few personal traits that make for independence in work were isolated so that schools could center full attention on providing for the needed pupil experiences in directing his own work at all points, in showing insight in deciding what would be best to do, in exercising initiative and self-control in keeping at it until completed, in judging his own work and procedure along with results to gain the standards sought, and in

democratic co-operation through much experience working with others.

Now in good co-operative handling of the organization of teaching, we find that the educative value of the experiences for the pupils are directly related to the extent to which he assumes his full responsibilities in handling the organization: in selecting the proper organization and the elements needed for good work and in using them adaptively in getting the work done.

In my observations today, a most significant fact was that the pupils in the laboratory school were so ready to assume responsibility for developing the work at any point called upon and that they did so in a natural, effective manner. The student teachers were taking the same attitude and self direction in doing their work. This was evident in the English and science work and in the algebra directed-study work. It is this co-operative living and working together for common ends as well as to meet individual needs that will ultimately develop

the well-balanced, integrated personality.

Another commendable practice was the co-operative work of the supervising teachers for any subject in demonstrating for and supervising of the student teachers' observation work. One teacher may offer the special methods course, as Miss Gillum does in English, but all teachers participate in directing the students' experiences and apprentice work in connection with the various units of the course. This provides a much richer and varied experience and understanding for the student teacher than would be possible working with only one supervising teacher.

I wish to express my sincere appreciation of the excellent work observed today. It has been both stimulating and helpful. The laboratory school and this college are both to be congratulated for their achievements in integrated teacher education and for the forward-looking program being developed here.

Democracy in the Making

Clement T. Malan
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Indiana State Teachers College
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Another discussion of vital interest was given by Dr. C. T. Malan on the subject "Democracy in the Making." The speaker said in part: "We have united every person above twenty-one years of age who is not an imbecile to participate in government. Voting is a very important part of American democratic government. It is not enough to merely invite people to vote. The voter must be interested enough in voting to participate. Evidence is not lacking which shows that education is failing in part to interest youth in the problems and practice of government. More and more do we need, not only to study civic education, but to participate in the solution of civic problems. The realization of the ideals of liberty and democratic government depends upon the participation of all.

"How can the foregoing objectives be ac-

complished? Indiana State Teachers College started an experiment in holding class elections according to the election laws of Indiana. The time, equipment, hours, and, in fact, every legal regulation concerning elections in Indiana are carried out. The members of the classes in political science hold the elections under the supervision of the instructor. Each student serves in every capacity as a member of the election board. The plan is feasible and reflects civic education at its best.

"Democracy has never meant indifference; it has never meant the placing of responsibility for thoughts, suggestions, and leadership on other people. Democracy has always meant individual responsibility for intelligent leadership or intelligent following. There is no royal road to success nor is there any royal road to Democracy."

Around the Reading Table

POWDERMAKER, THERESE. *Physical Education Play Activities for Girls in Junior and Senior High School*. A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1938. 355 pp.

Therese Powdermaker, a teacher of high school girls in Baltimore, Maryland, presents here a book written principally—as she states in the introduction—to help beginning women teachers in physical education. She has attempted to bring together between the covers of one book descriptions of and suggestions for teaching certain types of activities especially adapted to a physical education program for girls in the public schools; in short, to give to the beginning teachers a “one-volume library.”

The activities chosen for development Miss Powdermaker groups under the following headings: (1) self-testing activities, classified as individual stunts, couple stunts, combative stunts, apparatus stunts, and game skill stunts; (2) games, including tag, relay races both with and without equipment, ball games, and miscellaneous games; (3) coaching hints and technique for game skills; (4) swimming. Each group of activities is introduced by a brief discussion of the relative values of the material in a program of physical education for girls and incorporated in the description of the activities are coaching hints. Preceding the chapters dealing with activities is a discussion of pertinent problems always present in the organization and administration of a high school physical education program for girls and some ingenious suggestions for solving these problems.

The book is definitely not one which a teacher unfamiliar with the activities will find complete in and of itself. It presupposes, particularly in dealing with the more highly organized games, e. g., archery, field hockey, basketball, golf, La Crosse, soft ball, tennis, volleyball, and swimming, knowledge and skills which can be obtained only through extensive study and participation in the activities. With such a background, the material outlined is extremely helpful—largely because it offers the beginner an opportunity to compare her own approach and initial problems in teaching the activities with those of an experienced teacher.

The chapter dealing with self-testing activities is one of the most helpful. It is difficult to find much material dealing with this phase of the physical education

program which has been adapted for girls and this outline of tested material is most welcome, especially the activities suggested for the apparatus, rings, rope, horse, buck, and parallel bars.

It has been possible to include a great amount of material in the 355 pages of the text, largely because much of the book is written in outline form. In spite of this brevity, the well-trained teacher will find the material exceptionally clear, and that accurate and attractive illustrations of Miss Kate Rowland add much to its interest.

The extensive bibliographies, one at the close of each chapter, and a ten-page index make this book a very useful one.

—Florence M. Curtis
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CARVER, GEORGE. *Index to Sentence Essentials*. The Cordon Company, New York, 1938. 79 pp.

DEL PLAINE, FRANCIS K., AND GRANDY, ADAH G. *Written English*. The Cordon Company, New York, 1938.

The wide-spread popularity of objective testing, to which fundamentals in English mechanics of writing, etc., especially lend themselves, has given occasion to a multiplicity of publications designed to supply the discrepancies in the student's command of the obviousnesses of his mother tongue. The booklets named above are two of the most recent such.

Carver: *An Index to Sentence Essentials* is a combination of permanent handbook and detachable exercises. The matter included seems well chosen in that it is elemental. Then after the exercises have been used, there remains between the covers the original handbook material. A unique and convenient device is that of cutting the pages of the handbook section progressively shorter from the top and printing at the top of each fractional leaf a heading, so that these pages are their own index. This device renders any item readily findable.

Del Plaine and Grandy: *Written English* is an out-and-out workbook; it is an extensive collection of problems involving a wide and well-chosen list of difficulties that show themselves in writing. The type is comfortable, the page is of good size, and the publisher has not been stingy of space. Any class, after doing these exercises, should pass a fundamentals test with no difficulty.

—Victor C. Miller
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